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ABSTRACT

It is proposed that a general communicative second language syllabus can be adapted for the specific requirements of a second language reading model. This is demonstrated with one model by filling the content, product, and process dimensions with reading-specific elements. Content consists of text type of form (novel, news story, report, etc.), while product corresponds to the learner's needs and learning goals and the various types of text comprehension. Process includes the reading techniques used by a foreign language learner to decode textual information. For illustration, the model is then applied to one text type, the news story (appended) and the method's use in revealing meaning and structure is discussed briefly. A three-page bibliography is included. (MSE)

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Elements of a Text Type-oriented Model of Second Language Reading within a Communicative EFL/ESL Syllabus*

Eberhard Klein

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1 Introduction

The aim of this paper is to develop a text type-dependent model of L2 reading which can be accommodated within a communicative EFL/ESL syllabus. For reasons to be elaborated later, the model suggested by DUBIN & OLSHTAIN (1986) seems to be suitable for this purpose.

First, I shall put forward the main premises underlying my model. I will then give a brief outline of the main tenets currently held in second language reading research. Next, I will show how this model of second language reading can be made a component of a communicative syllabus. Finally, the model will be applied to a text of the form *news story*.

The model to elaborated in this article rests on the following assumptions:

1. Reading is seen as a communicative process through which the reader negotiates the meaning of a text in an "interactive way" (WILLIAMS 1986: 43). The view of reading as being only a *receptive* skill is therefore rejected.
2. The analysis of the reading process should take into account the following factors: the learner's needs and intentions, textual features (cohesion phenomena etc.), external manipulation (tutoring by the teacher etc.)[1]
3. As a consequence, reading has to be taken not as a predetermined, quasi-automatic process but rather as an activity that lends itself to guiding and tutoring; or, to

[1]This also applies to the techniques for assessing text comprehension, an aspect which will not be considered here.

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put it differently, reading is both learnable and teachable.

4. Second language reading competence is composed of various partial competences on the different levels of linguistic description: phonetics/phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics and text.

2 The contribution of (text)linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics and foreign language pedagogy to the analysis of second language reading

In principle, three approaches can be distinguished within second language reading research. According to the first (textlinguistic) concept, reading is regarded as an "information-gathering" activity, which heavily draws on factors such as *textual cohesion, text structure* and *sentence connectivity*. the second concept is of a psychological nature; here, reading is seen as a process on the basis of which the reader decodes the meaning of a text by activating *mental schemata*. The third approach is didactic in the sense that the foreign language reader can be taught different reading techniques depending on he type of information he is meant to extract from a text in view of specific learning objectives.
Each of these approaches will now be outlined in turn.

2.1

It is now generally accepted that both first and second language reading[2] are linguistic activities which can be subdivided into a) the process of decoding the message, b) the process of identifying and constructing semantic units, and c) the process of solving comprehension problems. The following description of these processes is based on GÜNTHER/STROHNER/TERHORT (1986: 11-19). As regards the decoding process and the identification of semantic units, the linguistic input is analysed with regard to several parameters. Firstly, there is the text medium; contrary

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[2]For the differences between first and second language reading, the reader is referred to CZIKO (1978: 485-487) and KARCHER (1988: 243-254).

to earlier findings, according to which the visual perception of a difficult text is said to be superior to aural perception, more recent work on reading suggests that difficult texts are comprehended and reproduced more easily only if the readers text-processing strategies are more highly developed than his aural skills. If this is not the case, the *aural* perception of a more complicated text may very well lead to better comprehension. (GÜNTHER/STROHNER/TERHORST 1986: 12 ff)

With respect to text-processing at the lexical level, the main insights are the following: lexical words are processed more slowly than function words. Words that are part of active constructions are comprehended more easily than those in the passive voice. Words which occur more frequently in general language use lend themselves more readily to comprehension than those which have a low rate of frequency. Furthermore, words with a high rate of occurrence within a text are conducive to better comprehension. Lastly, words with which the reader is unfamiliar hamper the decoding process; this incidentally also applies to words that introduce a new theme into a text.

When it comes to decoding lexical ambiguities, the reader first activates all the potential meanings of a word but establishes its dominant meaning in relation to its immediate context. (cf. SIMPSON 1984)

The research carried out on the processing of propositions and sentences is rather inconclusive as to whether words are processed immediately after their perception and then linked with the context or whether they are stored until after the decoding process reaches a sentence boundary and are then integrated into their immediate context.

On the level of *reference*, the available evidence suggests that *cataphoric* pronominal reference is processed more easily than *anaphoric* reference, the reason being that the reader interprets the cataphoric pronoun as a "lexical gap", which can be filled quickly as soon as the lexical word appears (AARONSON & FERRES 1983, 1984). In the case of anaphoric reference, the reader has to go through a lengthy decoding process in order to assign the appropriate concept to the pronoun concerned.

Lastly, on the level of *text structure*, there seems to be interaction between the semantic and pragmatic representation of a text and its linguistic encoding. Thus, text comprehension

depends on the sequence in which an action or a process is ordered within a text. HABERLANDT (1984) concluded from empirical evidence that the first five words of a new text are usually read more slowly than the remaining ones because they introduce all the concepts relevant to this section of the text. The reading time also increases in proportion to the number of participants occurring in the text. Finally, the superstructure of a text also determines the time needed for the decoding process: for example, narrative texts can be processed more quickly than, say, abstract texts.

As far as the process of *semantic integration* is concerned, two different approaches stand in opposition to each other: proponents of the *autonomous* type of text processing argue that the individual semantic units are constructed separately and only later interact with other semantic units (cf. FORSTER 1981). Those who favour the *interactive* type of text-processing take the view that semantic units are in contact with one another even before the construction process is completed. (cf. MARSLEN-WILSON 1984). As a result of this controversy, a compromise view has emerged according to which the reader integrates these semantic units with one another rather quickly, which enables him to build up a comprehensive mental model of the text.

With regard to the perception of *words* as the smallest units, MARSLEN-WILSON & TYLER (1980) claim that a whole range of word candidates is activated by the reader. Since the relevant word is more readily available in the reading process as opposed to the listening process, the notion of *context* is brought to bear on the reading process only at the final stage, as INHOFF (1984) argues.

Another important concept is that of *inference*. Research undertaken by SANFORD & GARROD (1981) dealt with inferences based on the concept of *scenario*, i.e. a mental unit referring to a self-contained and familiar situation (e.g. a court hearing). As the average reader has sufficient knowledge of such scenarios, he can infer even those participants who are not explicitly mentioned in the text. The situation is similar with *scripts*, i.e. mental units which represent stereotypical sequences of *acts*. Here, only the most important concepts of the mental structure are activated rather than the entire script. The activation of further concepts

belonging to the overall script takes place only if they are implicated by other concepts.

The question now arises as to which strategies the reader is likely to adopt when he faces problems in the text-decoding process, i.e. if the above-mentioned mechanisms fail to work for some reason. Experiments based on the reader`s eye movements have shown that in the case of miscomprehension he enters into a phase of re-analysis, which eventually leads to the correct interpretation of the sentence that was misinterpreted before (FRAZIER & RAYNER 1982). These findings disprove commonly-held views that all possible interpretations of a word in a particular context are activated simultaneously and that the decision for a specific interpretation is only made at a later stage. Rather, the reader opts for a context-specific interpretation as soon as he perceives a word. Only if comprehension breaks down does he initiate a re-analysis of the linguistic input.

Other studies, which also adopt a textlinguistic approach, focus on the need to sensitize foreign language learners to the importance of "information-gathering skills" (MACKAY 1979: 79) and to ways of how to teach them. They are defined as "[...] comprehension skills involving the perception and interpretation of all the linguistic signals which make up the text." (MACKAY 1979: 79)

Drawing on HALLIDAY & HASAN`S (1976) concept of textual *cohesion*, Mackay suggests that the foreign language learner ought to familiarize himself with the main elements that constitute textual cohesion: *lexical*, *syntactic* and *logical* relationships (MACKAY 1979: 83-87). In addition to these different types of relationships, it is imperative that the leaner be made aware of linguistic signals, or *discourse markers*, which form a text at a notional-functional level and which tell him "whether to interpret a stretch of text as an observation, a reinforcement, a conclusion, or some other act of communication." (MACKAY 1979: 87)

According to the approach just outlined, the reader accomplishes his task by activating his knowledge of the grammatical and semantic system of the target language. The issues which have been dealt with so far are therefore firmly embedded within linguistics as a discipline to describe the *formal* language system.

2.2

By contrast, the second approach to explaining the (second) language reading process resorts to the reader's prior knowledge (or background knowledge). The type of research relevant to this approach draws on empirical work in psychology and psycholinguistics in general and *schema* theory in particular, as originally developed by BARTLETT (1932) and, more recently, by RUMELHART (1980) and RUMELHART & ORTONY (1977). A *schema* can be defined as "an organization of a subject's past experience that directly influences current perception. New information is fitted into existing schemata." (ADAMS & COLLINS 1979: 3)

The concept underlying any schema-based approach is that of *semantic creativity*. It rests on the assumption that texts *per se* do not carry meaning but guide the process of interpretation by the principle "that every input is mapped against some existing schema and that all aspects of that shema must be compatible with the input information." (CARRELL & EISTERHOLD 1983: 557)

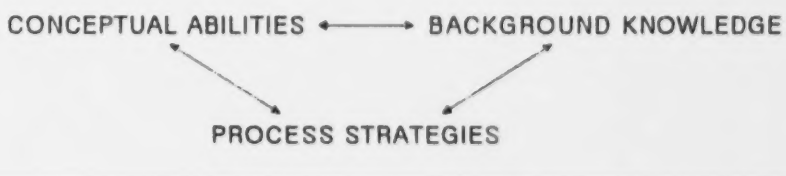
Reading is seen as a process whereby the reader constantly puts forward hypotheses about the meaning of a text, comparable to the process of "hypothesis creation" in (second) language acquisition. GOODMAN (1968) characterized reading as a "psychological guessing game", in which the reader constructively contributes to the reading process by continuously drawing inferences. For the reader to perform these activities successfully, he must meet four requirements:

1. he must be able to carry out logical operations;
2. he must process his prior knowledge of the issues dealt in the text;
3. he must be capable of integrating the textual information into his schemata;
4. he must process the newly-acquired information.

The mapping of the textual input against the reader's schemata takes place in two directions: *bottom-up* and *top-down*. Bottom-up processing is induced by the incoming data, the features of which enter into the system through the best-fitting, bottom-level schemata. As these bottom-level schemata converge into higher-level, more general schemata, the latter also become activated. This type of processing can therefore also be labelled *data-*

driven (NORMAN 1975). In the case of top-down processing, the system makes general predictions based on general higher-order schemata and then scans the input for information to fit into these higher-order schemata. Top-down processing can also be said to be *conceptually driven*. (CARRELL & EISTERHOLD 1983: 557)
As RUMELHART (1980) points out, both types of processing occur on all levels simultaneously. The data that are needed to fill out the schemata are supplied by bottom-up processing while top-down processing facilitates their assimilation if they are anticipated by the reader's conceptual expectations. Thus, bottom-up and top-down processing fulfil different functions: the former ensures that the reader will be sensitive to the new information, the latter enables him to resolve ambiguities or to choose between alternative interpretations of the data.[3]
For the ESL reading process the concept of *prior knowledge* is of considerable importance because it interacts with conceptual abilities and processual strategies so as to effect comprehension. This is shown in COADY's (1979: 7) "Model of the ESL Reader":

Diagram 1



It is even suggested that background information can compensate for syntactic deficiencies:

> The subject of the reading materials should be of high interest and relate well to the background of the reader,

[3]Concrete examples of *bottom-up* and *top-down* processing are discussed in RUMELHART (1980:267).

since strong semantic input can help to compensate when syntactic control is weak. The interest and background knowledge will enable this student to comprehend at a reasonable rate and keep him involved in the material in spite of the syntactic difficulty." (COADY 1979: 12)

2.3

In addition to the linguistic and the psychological approaches, there is what could be called a "didactic" one, which utilizes the various *reading techniques* employed by the foreign language learner to decode textual information. Traditionally, a binary distinction was made between *intensive* and *extensive* reading, the former being used to bring about the comprehension of specific aspects of the syntactic structure and the content of shorter texts, the latter aiming at the cursory understanding of longer texts. A more refined taxonomy would have to include *reading for thorough comprehension* (which corresponds to *intensive reading*), *skimming*, or *speed/gist reading* (which is equivalent to *intensive reading*), *surveying* and *scanning*. *Reading for thorough comprehension* enables the reader to decode the content of a text exhaustively and to focus on all its potential aspects. To achieve this aim, the reader necessarily has to pay attention to each individual text item. (LÖSCHMANN 1975: 29)

Skimming serves the purpose of effecting the comprehension of the essential pieces of information in a text. The reader may intend to separate the main messages from the less important messages of a text. Given the lack of time, the EFL reader often resorts to *skimming* at a preliminary stage in his reading process, e.g. to find out if it is worth eventually reading the entire text for *thorough comprehension* (KARCHER 1988: 257 ff). *Scanning* aims at locating specific pieces of information within a text (e.g. quotations, names etc.). What is at issue here is not the global understanding of a text passage but rather the location of small units of information in a longer text (KARCHER 1988: 258). Lastly, by employing the technique of *surveying*, the reader tries to identify the overall topic of a text without paying attention to detailed information. KARCHER (1988: 258) postulates that the competent second language reader should be capable of applying a

combination of these reading techniques ("combinatorial reading").[4]

From the variety of methods that can be used for inducing the learner to practise such reading techniques two will be illustrated briefly. Firstly, for the identification of so-called *context-clues*, the second language learner should be sensitized to those words and phrases in a text which carry the heaviest "contextual load". Secondly, in order to recognize features of textual *cohesion*, the reader should familiarize himself with different types of *discourse markers* (in the sense of MACKAY 1979: 88), which also facilitate his task of understanding the argumentative structure of a text. Some examples of *discourse markers* are "additives" (*again, above all* etc.) and "contrastives" (*alternatively, conversely* etc.) and such like.[5]

3 A model of second language pedagogy as a component of a communicative EFL syllabus

In this section, I shall ilustrate how reading competence in a foreign language can be related to the category *text type* and how it can be integrated as a learning objective into a communicative syllabus. The various theoretical approaches to establishing typologies of texts cannot be considered here.[6] For the purpose of this paper, the typologies of texts proposed by HALLIDAY & HASAN (1976) and WERLICH (1982) seem to be appropriate.

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[4] It should be added here that these different reading techniques are particularly useful in the field of *Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP)* and are widely employed in textbooks of *English for Specific Purposes (ESP)*; e.g. in MORROW (1980).

[5] There are courses specifically designed to improve the second language learner's reading competence, e.g. the "Reading Skills" course at Duisburg University (West Germany); cf. von SCHOFF (1986).

[6] A valuable source of information about *registers* and *text types* analysed from the perspective of the British tradition is LUX (1981).

3.1 DUBIN & OLSHTAIN's (1986) model of a communicative syllabus

The overall structure of DUBIN & OLSHTAIN's (1986: 43) model of a communicative syllabus is illustrated in Diagram 2:[7]

Diagram 2:

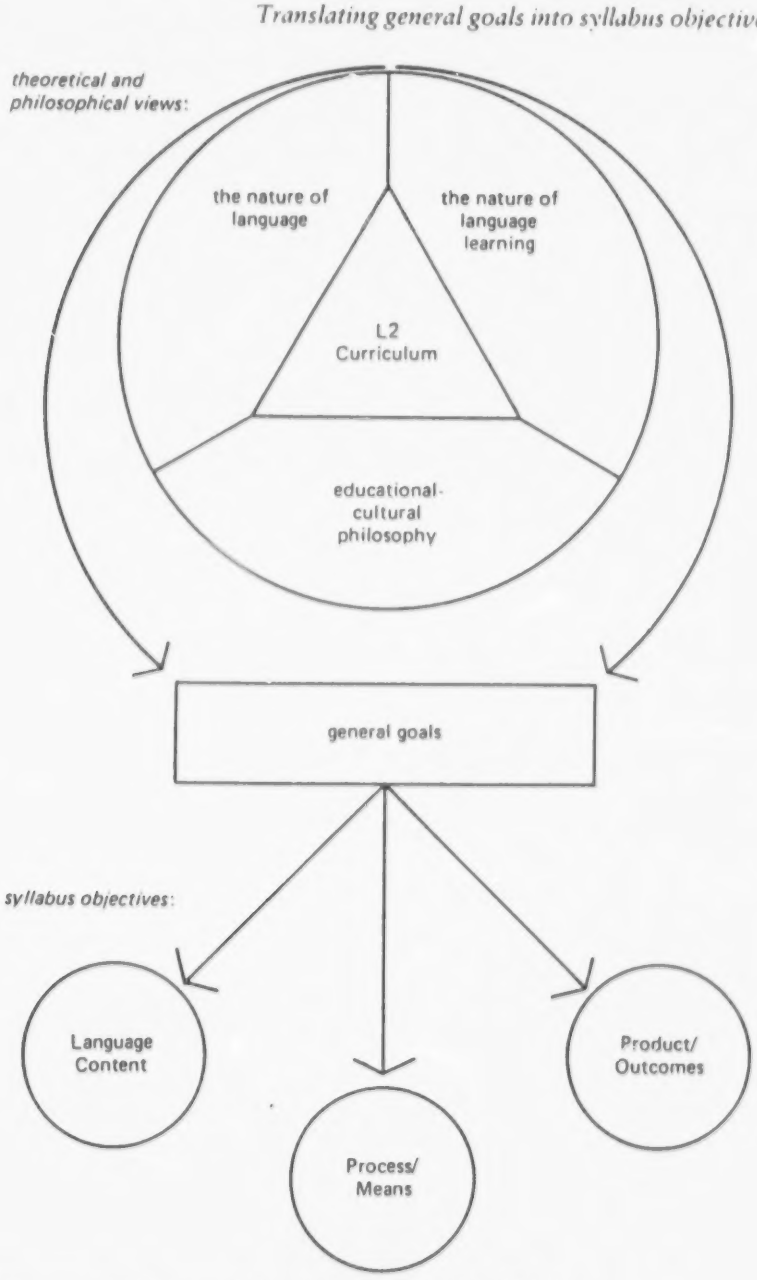

Diagram 4 How goals become instructional objectives

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[7]My thanks are due to Dr F. Dubin and Dr E. Olshtain for granting me permission to reproduce Diagram 3 from their book *Course design*. Cambridge: University Press, 1986, p. 43.

According to Dubin & Olshtain, a communicative second language curriculum sets a number of *general goals* (DUBIN & OLSHTAIN 1986: 24 ff), which in turn determine three sets of *syllabus objectives*:

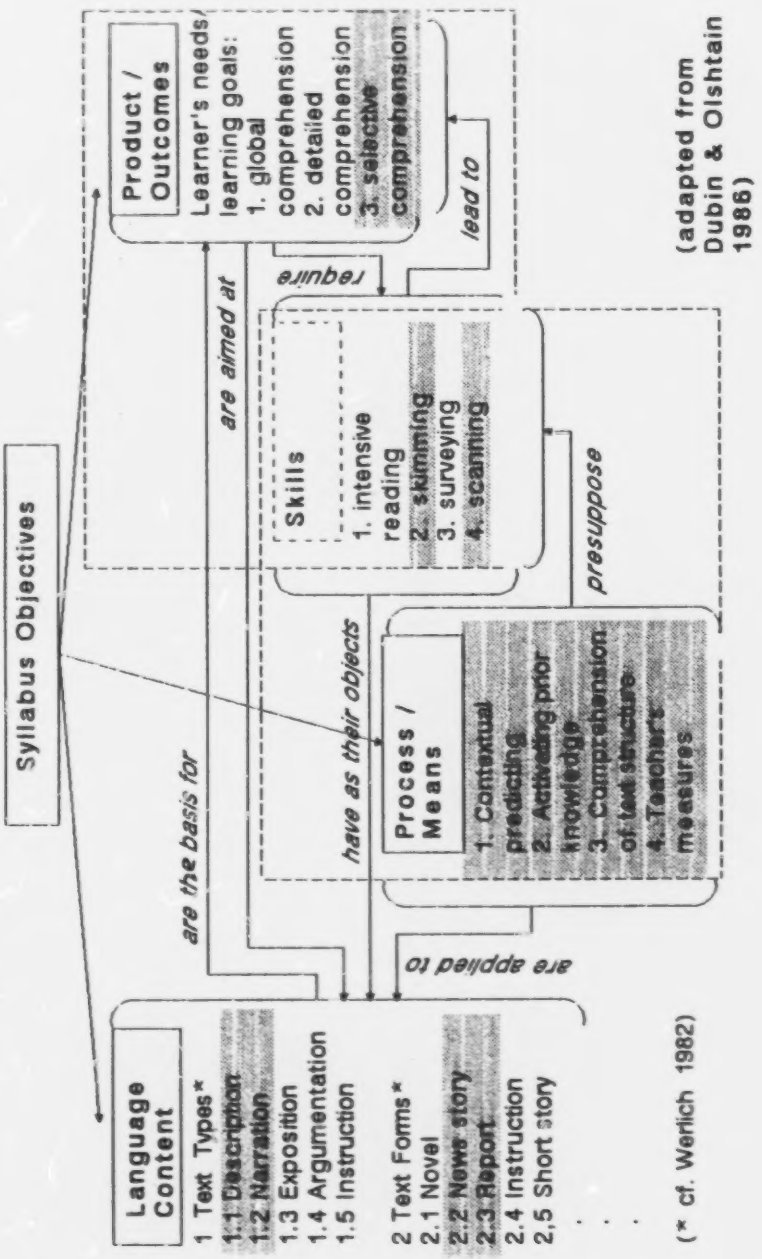
1. within the *content area*, they include grammatical and functional categories, themes for meaningful and appropriate communication etc.;
2. as part of the *process area* there are the learning process and the strategies adopted by the learner and the role of the teacher, particularly the methods he employs;
3. the components of the *product area* are represented by the learning objectives and the learner's terminal linguistic behaviour, or, as Dubin & Olshtain put it: "Product in syllabus design refers to the specification of the expected outcome of a course of study. *What* are the learners expected to *know* at the end of the course?" (DUBIN & OLSHTAIN 1986: 49)

Dubin & Olshtain give priority to *skills* as learning goals within a communicative syllabus, arguing that a skill-oriented syllabus serves the learner's needs best and that such a syllabus is also conducive to promoting learner autonomy. The question is now: How can their model be modified in such a way as to be able to account for the specific competence in second language *reading*? Diagram 3 illustrates how Dubin & Olshtain's model can be adapted to our specific needs.

The *content* area has been filled with the various *text types* and *text forms* listed and elaborated in WERLICH (1982: 46 ff). Text *types* are abstractions of text *forms* such as *novel*, *news story*, *report* etc. The *process* area includes the techniques mentioned above (p. 8f); the learner makes predictions about textual information to follow, activates his prior knowledge so as to promote his comprehension, which is a direct application of *schema* theory, and uncovers the textual structure on the levels of syntax, semantics, logic and pragmatics. providing textual clues and guiding-questions are some of the contributions made by the teacher.

The *product* area contains the learner's needs and learning goals and the various types of text comprehension (cf. section 2.3).

Diagram 3:


Syllabus Objectives
are the basis for
are aimed at
have as their objects
are applied to
presuppose
require
lead to
Language Content
1 Text Types*
1.1 Description
1.2 Narration
1.3 Exposition
1.4 Argumentation
1.5 Instruction
2 Text Forms*
2.1 Novel
2.2 News story
2.3 Report
2.4 Instruction
2,5 Short story
. . .
(* cf. Werlich 1982)
Process / Means
1. Contextual predicting
2. Activating prior knowledge
3. Comprehension of text structure
4. Teachers measures
Skills
1. intensive reading
2. skimming
3. surveying
4. scanning
Product / Outcomes
Learner's needs/ learning goals:
1. global comprehension
2. detailed comprehension
3. selective comprehension
(adapted from Dubin & Olshtain 1986)

The three dimensions *content*, *process*, and *product* are interrelated in several ways: for example, reading skills serve as an interface between the *process* and *product* areas. They belong to both dimensions because, on the one hand, they are techniques employed by the reader to achieve *global*, *detailed* and *selective* comprehension; one the other hand, they are learning objectives *per se*. This is because the different activities which make up the *process* dimension, when applied to different text forms, draw on text-decoding techniques; thus, contextual predictions and the recognition of the textual structure can only be achieved via the reading techniques. Finally, the *content* and *product* dimensions are also interconnected: *text forms* are the objects at which the learner's/reader's needs are directed and at the same time represent the basis for the different learning goals and the learner's needs.

4 The application of the model to a text of the form *news story*

In the following section, some suggestions will be made about how the model under consideration can be applied to a concrete text. The article "Symbolic Sofa Talk in Cairo"[8] (see Appendix) contains elements of *descriptive*, *expository* and *narrative* text *types* (cf. Diagram 3). I shall restrict myself to illustrating the learner's need and learning objective of *selective comprehension*, which is achieved through *scanning*.[9] Let us therefore assume that the reader has been set the task of identifying the positions held by all the parties and organizations involved in the Middle East conflict. For the second language reader, this means that he has to activate his prior knowledge, identify certain text markers and textual clues and make contextual predictions so as to lay open the discourse structure of the article. He also has to attribute the various statements made in the text to their respective authors. He is expected to do all

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[8] *Newsweek* (6.3.1989)

[9] One way of inducing the learner to resort to *scanning* is to create time constraints, i.e. by setting the learner a narrow time limit within which the reading task must be completed. The elements brought into play in this special context are the ones marked grey in Diagram 3.

this without having recourse to intensive, time-consuming reading. This will be illustrated in the following. The NP *The Israelis* (line 28) signals to the reader that a statement can be expected which expresses the Israeli government's point of view. The sentence *Washington seemed to share Arafat's optimism* (line 59) also suggests that the explicit stating of the government's position is imminent. The above formulation also induces the learner to draw on his prior knowledge of the fact that the names of capitals usually stand for the governments of the countries concerned. With respect to the textual structure of the article, the NP *each of the parties* (line 12) is of particular relevance: by virtue of its definite article, it signals *anaphoric* reference, referring to the countries and organizations mentioned in the first paragraph (*Soviet Foreign Minister Edvard Shevardnadze, Israeli Foreign Minister Moshe Arens, Palestine Liberation Organization Chairman Yasir Arafat*). At the same time, *each of the parties* has *cataphoric* status in that it indicates that the further subdivision of the text is reflected by the successive treatment of the attitudes held by the parties involved in the conflict.[10]

5 Conclusion

In this paper, it has ben shown how a *general* communicative second language syllabus such as the one expounded in DUBIN & OLSHTAIN (1986) can be adapted for the specific requirements of a second language *reading* model. This was achieved by filling the *content*, *product* and *process* dimensions with "reading-specific" elements (i.e. those which are apt to account for the reading process in all its manifestations) and to reveal the various ways in which these elements interrelate with one another. This model is also meant to reflect insights into the reading process from a (text)linguistic, psychological/psycholinguistic angle. The model was then applied to a specific type of text. In particular, the

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[10] In the article, these are the passages in italics.

scanning technique was shown to enable the reader to glean concrete pieces of information from a text and to uncover its overall structure.

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Appendix

Symbolic Sofa Talk in Cairo

The Soviets re-enter the Mideast peace process.

The meetings may have been longer on symbolism than on substance, but symbolism is often what makes the Mideast tick. Soviet Foreign Minister Edvard Shevardnadze demonstrated his grasp of that principle last week when, on a 10-day sweep through the region, he stopped off in Cairo for talks with Israeli Foreign Minister Moshe Arens and the Israeli government's bête noire, Palestine Liberation Organization Chairman Yasir Arafat. The separate sessions - in the same room, on the same day, six hours apart - produced few tangible results. But no one expected many. The important thing was that they happened at all.

Each of the parties came away with a sense of accomplishment. *The Soviets,* who have tried for many years to break into the Mideast peace talks, *now believe they are there to stay as a major player. "Without good will on the part of Israel, there can be no solution to the conflict,"* **Shevardnadze** said after his two-and-one-half-hour meeting with Arens, but *"without the Soviet Union there can be no peace process."* Conceded an **Israeli Foreign Ministry official:** *"Basically we do believe the Soviets have a very important role."* Israel and the Soviets have been diplomatic strangers since Moscow severed relations during the 1967 war. But *"Israel appears to have backed off its longstanding demand that the Soviet must restore official relations before they can be considered fair brokers.* The foreign ministers agreed that at this stage they would set up "working groups" to exchange evaluations concerning the peace process.

The Israelis were elated to have finally gotten across to the Soviets. *"Though they do not accept our position,"* **one Israeli Foreign Ministry official** said, *"they do understand why we cannot accept their proposals.* For years Moscow has advocated a U.N.-sponsored international conference. Israel has just as tirelessly rejected the idea, arguing that its

case would never receive a fair hearing, given the anti-Israeli majority in the United Nations. **Shevardnadze** repeated the suggestion at his meeting with Arens. *"Why do you oppose an international conference?"* he asked. **Arens** recounted his rejoinder to reporters: "I said to him, `Allow me to answer you as a Jew answers a question - that is, with another question: *"Why do you oppose direct negotiations?"*`' The Israeli envoy, savoring his reponse, added: "That gave him some food for thought."

Prop plane: The couch where Arens sat had scarcely cooled before it was occupied by Arafat. After his own three-hour meeting with Shevardnaze, *the PLO chairman declared his readiness to meet face to face with Israeli representatives in Moscow."* When asked why Moscow, he replied wryly, "Do you suggest Washington? I don't have a visa." The question is academic, anyway. Last week **Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Shamir** repeated his government's refusal to meet with the PLO. *"Any talks with Yasir Arafat will be useless,"* he insisted. *"His only goal is the destruction of the state of Israel."* But Arafat claimed he and Arens had already opened indirect discussions just by sitting down on the same day in the same city. *"The process is moving."* **Arafat** declared in an interview with Israeli journalists in Cairo. "We know it won't be a jet airplane, maybe something with propellers. But it is moving.

Washington seemed to share Arafat's optimism, to a degree. After George Bush met with Jordan's King Hussein in Tokyo last week, **Secretary of State James Baker** reported that both leaders believe *"there are perhaps some opportunities ... that haven't existed before. There's somewhat of a dynamic in the whole process that is relatively new."* What place the Soviets would have in the shifting equation was another question, however. **Bush** expressed his view that *"Moscow's function "should be a limited role - and I think that's what it's going to be."* Asked in Cairo about the forecast, **Shevardnadze** responded, *"That is very sad. It injects a note of rivalry, and that is unnecessary."* Grinning, he added, "That was my first critical remark about the [new] president."

In fact, *Moscow* probably is in a position to accomplish some

things in the Mideast that Washington cannot. Certainly in Damascus and Baghdad, where Shevardnadze attempted to soothe some radical Arab voices, the Kremlin`s wishes outweigh those of the White House; and the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan has helped to raise Moscow`s standing throughout the Arab world. *"By moving towards Israel, Sheveradnadze is sending a message to the hard-line Arabs that they`ve also got to adjust,"* observes **William Quandt, a Mideast analyst** at Washington`s Brookings Institution. In Tokyo last week, Egypt`s President Hosni Mubarak and Jordan`s Hussein urged Bush to agree to an international conference, but the new president refused to be hurried. For now, he may choose simply to wait and see what substance, or at least symbolism, the Soviets come up with next.

(Sam Seibert with Ray Wilkinson in Cairo, Jane Whitmore in Washington and bureau reports)

* This article is a revised and extended version of a paper delivered at the "Ninth International Conference of Applied Linguistics" (AILA) at Halkidiki (Greece) on April 17th, 1990.